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ABSTRACT

As part of research on 48 programs funded through the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act (YEDPA) of 1977, this study addresses two issues behind the creation of viable work experience programs: design and implementation. The purpose of the study is to help those responsible for organizing youth employment programs to identify points in program design and implementation whereby the quality of the educational experience that participants will have can be increased. Five work experience programs provided written materials, observations, and interviews used for case studies in this report. The study consisted of four parts: (1) curriculum design (the set of learning activities); (2) curriculum principles (assessing the design); (3) concepts and behaviors (assessing the content); and (4) context for implementation (the art of the practical). After examination of data from the five projects in these four areas, recommendations were made for improvements in each of these areas. (KC)

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on creating viable work experience programs: design and implementation

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Mary Agnes Hamilton

August 1980

ACRONYMS

CETA	Comprehensive Employment and Training Act
FY	Fiscal Year
ILO	Intended Learning Outcomes
YETP	Youth Employment and Training Programs

INTRODUCTION

The issues addressed in this paper are the design and implementation of work experience programs. Such programs are intended to be educational in the sense of giving participants new knowledge, skills, and attitudes.

The framework used to assess the quality of the programs under consideration is taken from curriculum theory and analysis, which is concerned about the form and content of educational activities. A second concern of program creation is the influence of the implementation process on the program design.

The Quality of Work Experience Programs

As our nation enters the 1980s, youth unemployment and discontent with schooling persist as problems facing educators. Numerous programs and recommendations to create school-based work experience programs have attempted to address these problems. The report of the Panel on Youth (Youth: Transition to Adulthood, 1974) advocated a closer union of school and community by creating more opportunities for youth to participate in

the life of the community. The Carnegie Report (Giving Youth a Better Chance, 1979, Chapter 5) cited a number of reform proposals calling for shorter schooling and more work experiences for youth. The Youth Employment Demonstration Projects Act (1977) encouraged local education agencies to place school age, low-income youth in jobs.

These programs hoped to impact upon the future employability of youth, to make schooling more relevant and interesting to youth, and thereby to ease the transition from school to work. While adult employment status is the decisive measurement of program success, such a long-term outcome is expensive to document and difficult to assess. Other indicators of program effectiveness are needed for immediate evaluations of current and proposed programs to provide federal, state, and local policy makers with guidelines for decision making.

Analytic principles from the curriculum field can serve as one source for indicators of current program effectiveness. These principles of curricular form and content embody both empirical and theoretical knowledge of human learning. They can provide criteria for evaluating the quality of work experience programs, though they have usually been applied to classroom instructional programs.

In order to analyze such programs for policy purposes, there is a need to assess the quality of the day-to-day activities that youth encounter, because it is the cumulative effect of these activities over time that offers hope of easing unemployment and reducing inequality. Program planners and proposal reviewers could make use of these principles to evaluate the probable effectiveness of programs in the planning stages. As programs are implemented, these principles can help local program personnel make further choices when faced with reality constraints.

The Promise of Curriculum Analysis

The traditional way of planning instruction is through curriculum development, a process that first includes the statement of objectives or aims and then logically deduces behaviors and activities in accord with the objectives (Tyler, 1949). The traditional product of curriculum development is a package, with a teacher's guide and materials, that realizes the definition of curriculum as "a structured series of intended learning outcomes" (Johnson, p. 2, 1977), or "a course of study, the content" (Heubner, p. 156, 1976).

However, in the past ten years or so, critics in the curriculum field have proclaimed that the bent, or persuasion, of the field has drifted too far from the practical (Walker, 1975b; Schwab, 1969; Doyle and Ponder, 1977; Heubner, 1976; Pinar, 1975). If one assumes that curriculum making must adhere to traditional rationality in both its process and product, then we have eliminated any possibility of viewing work experience projects as having a curriculum. If on the other hand we allow that program developers act with a logic of a different order, that of practical reasoning, when faced with time and financial constraints, our process and product definitions of curriculum change.

Walker (1975a) observed that reliance on objectives in curriculum making proved to be a myth in three curriculum development projects. He found the order and logic of practical reasoning, or deliberation, to be operating in its place. Certainly the time constraints, especially the short period for a response to a federal request for a proposal, as well as the financial constraints that often limit or eliminate the hiring of curriculum makers and other supports, make the art of the practical the prime mover in getting work experience projects off the ground (cf. Schwab for a discussion of the practical, 1969).

When policy makers and program staff can also use educational criteria for making choices about program design, the fate of those programs will be responsive to more than the practical constraints found in the local environment. Goodlad (1966) defined curriculum making as a rational process that entailed a number of decisions made by planners at various stages along the way:

> Curriculum as a field of study, then, focuses on what is involved in selecting, justifying, and arranging these learnings (p. 13).

In effect, the identification and use of these principles could bring about closer coordination of federal, state, and local policy makers in organizing and ascertaining the quality of education programs designed to address social issues such as unemployment and equal opportunity. (Cf. Keppel, 1980, on the need for federal-state collaboration in educational policy for the 80s.)

Cremin (1973) noted the importance of extending the definition of curricula to programs planned beyond the auspices of a limited group of professionals, acknowledging that in our pluralistic society many groups and institutions contribute to learning:

> Finally, we would be forced to recognize that in a pluralistic society marked by a pluralistic education, it becomes a matter of the most urgent public concern to look at all these curricula in their various interrelations and to raise insistent questions of definition, scope, and priority (p. 220).

The implications of such arguments mean that the field of curriculum must take account of a wide range of learning programs being planned and implemented by people other than curriculum developers, and under conditions experiencing time and financial limitations. Extending the notion of curriculum to this range of programs requires a definition of curriculum that captures the day-to-day activities of youth.

Work Experience Curriculum: A Definition

A **work experience curriculum for this paper is defined as a set of learning activities centered around the work experience.** Part of the task of this study is to generate activity categories that describe what youth do in the programs. This definition acknowledges foremost that the activities should have some relationship to learning. Wirtz (1975) emphasized that the learning should have an application beyond particular job tasks, to life in general:

> An education-work policy is not one that misconceives of education as having for its purpose the preparation of people for work. Rather it includes this purpose as part of education's function of preparing people for life, of which work is one part; it takes full account of learning as a human value in itself (p. 3).

Hamilton (1980) suggested that certain programmatic dimensions could help assure that such learning takes place:

> The need to supplement activity with reflection in order to enhance its educational value is perhaps the most firmly grounded assertion that can be made about experiential learning, an idea rooted in Dewey's theory and supported by the research of Coleman and his colleagues (p. 184).

This importance of a reflective element suggests that we look at structures within the programs where reflection on work experience might take place.

These recent discussions regarding work experience programs echo the concerns expressed in the Dewey-Snedden debate about the place of work experience in schooling, the types of possible learnings, and the target group. This debate on vocational education appeared in the New Republic in 1914-1915 (reprinted in Curriculum Inquiry, 1977). Dewey objected to the possible tracking and thereby inherently limiting influences to which early technical training might lead (p. 38).

Although the scope of work experience here examined does not include vocational education programs per se, the issues of equal opportunity and the quality of learning from employment training resurface in the program design. Only by attention to the set of learning activities available through work experience programs, can we be assured that such programs provide opportunities for learning.

Study Methodology

The Youth Employment Demonstration Projects Act became law on August 5, 1977. This act amended the 1973 Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) so as to provide an expanded effort for understanding the youth unemployment problems and to create employment programs for low-income youth.

One part of the Act, the Youth Employment Training Program (YETP), focused on the importance of the school-to-work transition by requiring that the programs be linked to the educational institutions in their community. In Fiscal Year 1979 the Department of Labor set aside approximately $15 million from the Secretary's YETP discretionary monies for Exemplary In-School Demonstration Projects. To administer these projects, the Department of Labor and five foundations set up a non-profit organization named Youthwork, Inc. Youthwork selected forty-eight demonstration projects through a competitive process and added an additional fifteen non-competitive projects in Fiscal Year 1980.

To construct a cross-site analysis of policy issues using qualitative data collection strategies, Youthwork, Inc., contracted a research group at Cornell University. The group, called the Youthwork National

Policy Study, had observers at sites across the country collecting data relevant to key policy issues selected for study. A secondary analysis of data from five projects serves as the basis for this study on the design and implementation of work experience programs.

The on-site observers at each of the five sites provided data to the Youthwork National Policy Study from multiple sources. This strategy constituted a triangulation of data from interviews, participant observation, and printed reports and materials (cf. Denzin, 1970). The varying sources and types of information gathering facilitated a clearer understanding to emerge of the process of implementing the programs.

The on-site observers were residents of the communities within which the projects operated. They recorded field notes describing visits to the project bases and work sites. These notes reported activities such as staff training sessions, classroom instruction, as well as job-related duties performed by youth and responses of staff members to requests of students or teachers. These observations were essential to understanding the development of the curricular structure and content as it was implemented. The data proved especially important as four of the five sites did not have printed packages explaining their curriculum.

The interviews with youth by the on-site observers provided a rich data source about their perceptions of the work experience project. Interviews conducted in the spring of 1979 followed an interview schedule developed at Cornell to ascertain youth perceptions of their involvement in the project. Informal interviews conducted during site visits provided data that supplemented observations. Observers also interviewed project personnel involved in project implementation at various levels. Their descriptions about what they did and why they made certain choices

provide insights in understanding the curriculum-making process. Work site supervisors added another perspective that helped shape a more complete picture of program activities. Interviews with these participants fulfilled an aim of the qualitative research method assuring that the emic perspective was included in field notes (Pelto, 1970). A crucial element in comprehending the evolution of the work experience projects was not only knowing observations and the perceptions of the observers, but also those of the participants.

The on-site observers forwarded copies of relevant printed materials about the projects, such as monthly reports submitted to Youthwork, evaluation reports, announcements, newspaper clippings, and the like. Site 1 provided a copy of the work experience teacher's manual that was produced after the first year of the project. This manual served as a valuable document for this study, as it put together the pieces of curriculum suggested from observations and interviews that the on-site observer had reported in field notes throughout the year. One other site developed materials for a curriculum, but they were not used with work experience students. Reasons for this choice by program staff are discussed in the implementation section.

The data collected from Site 1 provide the central case study material for this study on curriculum at work experience sites. Data from the remaining four sites served to modify or underline the framework generated by Site 1. There were two reasons for this choice. First, data from Site 1 were more complete and comprehensive than from the other sites. Second, the purpose of this study is to articulate principles from the field of curriculum that identify important elements for learning within a work experience program, rather than to write a comparative case study.

Site Characteristics

The characteristics of the five projects varied considerably. Site 1 was operated by a non-profit career guidance advocacy organization that had been working with the school district for seven years previous to the federal project. The project built upon links already established with principals and teachers in five high schools during Fiscal Year (FY) 79 and in four during FY 80. A career team employed by the parent project was based at each of the high schools and implemented the work experience component of the project to 100 students the first year and to between 65 and 85 the second year. In addition, the career team had responsibilities for other project components such as operating the career center and helping high school teachers deliver career information to their classes.

Site 2 brought together an urban board of education and a community college in an effort to have college students counsel high school students during their time with the work experience program. Both bureaucracies in this consortium hired project coordinators to organize and manage program operations, but actual approval for implementation had to be granted by the consortium. The project placed 90 students in primarily public-sector work experience sites.

Site 3 was operated by a consortium of three rural school districts. Two high school principals organized placements in the private sector for under 90 youth.

Site 4 expanded career services and public sector placements already in existence from two to four high schools. The program was operated by a consortium of school districts in an urban area.

Site 5 was operated by a non-profit native American organization in a rural area. It was the only project located at a training center

rather than at the high school. The project hired staff to design and deliver services to approximately 60 youth.

WORK EXPERIENCE PROGRAM DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION

This study proposes a framework for creating viable work experience programs. Part one identifies a set of learning activities used in the curriculum design for work experience programs. Part two assesses the program design by developing principles for curricular analysis. Part three assesses the concepts and behaviors learned through such activities. Part four describes key elements in implementation that influence choices in program design. The sum total of this effort is to present a coherent and concise framework for the assessment of the quality of work experience programs as influenced by program design and implementation.

I. Curriculum Design: The Set of Learning Activities

This section categorizes the learning activities included in the five work experience projects serving as case studies for this report. Detailed descriptions of the events within each category suggest the importance of the interrelationships of the activities.

Students spent time in as many as five different types of program activities. These were: job-seeking skills, job-placement, work experience, coping skills, and task skills. These categories were generated by a review of curricular materials from Site 1 and from observations and interviews describing the day-to-day activities of youth in all five projects. Table 1 summarizes activities consistently offered at each site for youth in their program.

TABLE 1

ACTIVITIES IN WORK EXPERIENCE PROGRAMS AT FIVE SITES

	Job-Seeking Skills	Job Placement	Work Experience	Coping Skills	Task Skills
Site 1	x	x	x	x	
Site 2		x	x		
Site 3		x	x		x
Site 4	x	x	x		
Site 5	x	x	x	x	

Job Seeking Skills: Three sites offered training in job-seeking skills. Training at two sites involved classroom sessions on items such as interviewing, writing a resume, and completing an application. The career team at one site spent three half-days on this activity, using materials developed by the work experience coordinator. Staff at another site provided assistance if requested.

Job Placement: All five sites placed youth in jobs. The degree of attention paid to individual needs of students in the placement process determined two styles of placement: broker and counselor.

Three sites were brokering agencies, matching students with private or public sector jobs already identified by a job developer, employment computer, or personal contacts. Placement services provided by the other two sites were more extensive and time consuming. Staff spent more time trying to find placements compatible with the expectations and interests of the students, as well as occasionally figuring out transportation

schedules and securing contracts with the employer. One on-site observer recorded this brief interchange with a job developer who worked with project teams in three high schools:

> As I walked toward the new career center in the auditorium at the high school, I met the job developer. She said that since I had last seen her:"I have developed 22 jobs in seven working days."
>
> The on-site observer asked: "What happened?" The job developer responded: "Well, the interest areas of the kids were very different from the ones we already had developed. Out of the 30 jobs I had developed I could only use 14." I asked: "What were these interest areas?" She said: "Oh, cosmetology and seamstresses."
>
> The on-site observed asked: "Must these all be in the public sector?" The job developer responded: "Yes, can you imagine trying to get a cosmetologist into a public sector job?" I said: "What did you do?" She said: "Finally I got them with the state opera company." She said that the youth would get to go to the capitol and apply makeup on some of the cast members.

At this site, placing youth in public-sector jobs that matched their interests was accorded a high importance. This was evidenced by the behavior of the job developer during the placement process, and her creative solution to locating public-sector placements for cosmetology in the state opera company. The three sites that offered brokering services were not sufficiently staffed to provide this degree of responsiveness in placements.

Work Experience: The work experience activities involved regular work at a job placement after school hours. Work activities were site dependent. One site paid students to work 80 hours over a two-month period. These placements were in the public sector and provided a wide range of activities for the youth. Table 2 summarizes the job titles and employers used during one two-month cycle. The teacher/counselors at

TABLE 2

WORK EXPERIENCE JOB TYPES AND EMPLOYERS AT SITE 1

FEBRUARY-MARCH 1979

N	JOB TYPE	EMPLOYER
16	clerk and/or typist	YMCA, city (police, employment, safety, prosecutor, data control)
6	childcare aide	day care center, university pre-school
1	guidance trainee	project
1	probation aide	justice department
3	inspector aide: plans, sign	city (safety)
2	production trainee: radio, television	university radio station
3	pharmacy and supply aide	hospital
1	secretary trainee	city (safety)
3	office aide	neighborhood center, university
3	recreation trainee: counselor, leader	YMCA
3	library aide trainee	neighborhood center, high school, pharmacy
2	trainee: auto service attendant, dispatch	university garage
1	bindery assistant	university
1	health aide	health center
1	trainee: production, vending	university food service
2	therapy aide: physical, occupational, radiation	health sciences center, hospital
1	community service aide	March of Dimes
1	administrative aide trainee	U.S. Attorney
1	general admissions trainee	art museum

this site placed fifty students in work experiences during two cycles of the project's first year, and they placed approximately 35 students during the two cycles of the project's second year.

Coping Skills: Two sites offered classroom sessions on coping skills concurrent with the students' time in the work experience. The activities included in these sessions were similar to those identified by Walther (1976):

> Coping skills are defined here as those competencies which permit the individual to function within formal or informal social groups. Included are developing and executing plans, working with others, controlling impulses, processing and interpreting information, communicating, problem solving, and working within an authority structure (p. 65).

One site developed ten weekly sessions, each an hour in length, during the two-month work experience. Filmstrips, discussions, and role playing focused on the following topics: first-day work experiences; work and life styles; understanding deductions on a paycheck and managing a savings and checking account; and communication skills. In session 2 students saw, for example, three filmstrips ("The Factory Worker," "The Construction Worker," and "The T.V. Repairman") that showed workers at their jobs talking about why they chose their jobs. It was not important that the students remember why the workers chose their jobs. Rather, their comments served as a point of departure for the students to explore their own ambitions and expectations about work.

The on-site observer recorded notes during session three where the teacher/counselor talked about the pay check stubs:

> She began talking about the deductions from their pay checks and passed out a Xerox copy of a check stub. She asked the question: "Have you ever looked at your pay check stubs?"
>
> One girl said she had not been paid yet, and there was muffled laughter from the others. Neither she nor the boy next to her had been paid yet.
>
> Another boy nodded and said: "Yes. I have looked at it." Then the teacher posed the question: "What is taken out?" A girl said: "FICA". The teacher said: "Yes, what does that mean?" And a girl responded: "Social Security". The teacher said: "What is that for?" One boy said: "For old age...like when you do not have a job anymore."
>
> And the teacher explained a little more about the procedure and gave a personal example of her paystub deductions. She said that when she first came to the high school, they had taken out two times as much FICA as they were supposed to. She got a refund a little later because there was some confusion about getting on the payroll late.
>
> She asked the question: "What other kinds of things are taken out?" And students responded: "Medical...insurance..."
>
> The teacher elaborated on these and also mentioned savings, union dues, and then mentioned another personal example of how different employers cite benefits that they contribute as one of their competitive bargaining opportunities [students] might look at the ones that provided the best benefits. She used an example of an interview at one school where the employer had emphasized their benefit package.

The half-hour lesson continued with the teacher asking what the students did with their checks and then followed with possibilities of saving and checking accounts. The session also put the teacher into contact with the students so as to give feedback about their work experience.

In session eight, students saw a filmstrip depicting a secretary arguing with her boss about performing duties she felt were not her responsibilities (description from the teacher's manual). After the filmstrip, students were asked to consider how they would handle the situation, including alternative behaviors. The activity was one of the problem-solving exercises outlined in the teacher's manual.

Observations show that the teachers followed these exercises, adding questions like "Does this come up at work?"

Task Skills: One site emphasized that students receive instruction from the work site supervisor in job-related skills, that is, task skills (Walther, 1976). The project contracted out-of-school training in specific vocational skills at business sites, reimbursing employers for their time with the students. Training sites included a newspaper office, a hospital, a car repair garage, and a discount store. Project staff hoped that after the training ended, students would be employable in the skills learned at the job site.

II. Curriculum Principles: Assessing the Design

This section demonstrates that Dewey's (1938) principles of continuity and interaction argue in favor of attention to the set of activities when developing work experience programs, if these programs are genuinely concerned about learning.

The question of the value for the learner of the set of activities already identified can be addressed by principles suggested by educators in the field of curriculum. Jackson (1973) noted that experiences related to schooling should be more than "intrinsically worthwhile" or "simply enjoyable". Instead, he emphasized, Dewey's principles of continuity and interaction offer useful indicators of judging the extent to which an experience becomes a learning experience. Jackson wrote:

> From an educational viewpoint, the potential value of any experience is gauged by the answers to two questions: Are participants prepared to make the most of it? Where does the experience lead in a developmental sense? As some readers will recognize, these questions contain, in disguise, Dewey's two principles of interaction and continuity, which he offered as criteria to discriminate between educative and miseducative experience. "The principle of interaction," he explains, "makes it clear that failure of adaptation of material to needs and capabilities of individuals may cause an experience to be noneducative quite as much as failure of the individual to adapt himself to the material" (Dewey, 1963, pp 46-47). He continues, "The principal of continuity in its educational application means, nevertheless, that the future has to be taken into account at every stage of the educational process" (p. 47, in Jackson p.58).

These principles are particularly helpful when understanding work experience programs, as youth spend most of their work experience program time in their job placement.

The Princple of Interaction: An activity that sites developed to assure some degree of interaction between the learner and the work

experience was the job placement procedure. As indicated, the five sites all tried to some degree to encourage student motivation to participate by locating a placement close to each student's interests. Time and method spent on this activity varied, as seen in three sites using a brokering role and two sites using a counseling role.

One brokering site had lists of jobs available in large private sector corporations. The goodness of fit between the student interests and the work opportunity did not appear to be a key variable in the job placement, but rather students were informed of employment opportunities available. This site also placed several hundred students, whereas the other sites placed under 100 students each year. The considerably large numbers of students served, as well as the emphasis in this project on job placements, may explain the low priority placed on interaction with the learner.

The following notes by the on-site observer at a site where interaction was emphasized describes one student's feelings about being placed in an area of her interest:

> The on-site observer asked: "I am interested to know what kind of work you did."
>
> She said she had done clerical work at the police department. She had been filing reports and she said that the job was boring, but that she did learn about some programs. She was really interested in law enforcement, but before she went into the program, she did not know what aspect of law enforcement she wanted to be in. She said that now she knows for sure that she does not want to be in clerical parts of it, but that she really was interested in being an officer.
>
> On-site observer: "What is your opinion about this program?" The student: "It was really good. It got us jobs like we wanted to have. They might not have been just exactly like what we wanted. But it was in a field that helped us get a look at what else was going on around."

> The student said that she had been involved in three other job programs. The observer asked: "Could you compare this program with those other ones?" She said: "Well, the other ones were just something to do in the summer. We were just placed there and we were paid. In this one we got to choose."

The Principle of Continuity: The principle of continuity asks that educators look at how one learning activity leads to another. How do the various activities promote learning by logically developing or strengthening what has been previously learned? When viewing the work experience programs, the job-seeking skills and placement services all helped secure the student a placement at a work site. Three sites designed programmatic structures that formally encouraged growth while at the worksite. Two sites used activities previously described as coping skills while one site used task skills.

The teacher's manual for Site 1 used the student's work experience as the content for session 1 on "coping skills." Students talked about what their work entailed and what they observed their colleagues doing, and they shared their feelings about their experience and what they hoped to learn. The primary criteria for selecting this focus appeared to be both the direct manner of addressing an intended learning outcome (ILO), as well as the benefits to be gained by tapping the new experiences of the students. The ILO to increase student awareness of careers, work roles and jobs was directly served by the student oral reports about what they did and observed at their jobs, both on a cognitive and affective level. Valuing was developed as well, as students were asked how they felt about what they did. They were encouraged to keep track of their reactions in a daily work log. Such procedures assisted the

youth to conceptualize their experience, become more sensitized to what was happening to them every day, and to internalize their own values about work--in sum, making the relationship between the actual work experience and coping skills sessions particularly valid.

The continuity between these two activities was also appropriate because it was feasible. It enabled the teachers to learn how their students perceived the world of work around them and enabled teachers to assess the conceptual and affective competencies of their students through the discussion. This choice of focus made an economical use of time by allowing students to reflect on their experiences and deepening their understandings of experiences at their work placement not necessarily assimilated.

Continuity between the work experience and coping skills activities was limited to this session. Other sessions introduced new material for student discussions and role playing. Consequently, concepts and behaviors were introduced in a new context, potentially unfamiliar to the student. For example, session 2 on "Why do people work?" introduced three filmstrips about three workers. Students discussed the filmstrips and what they learned from them. The choice of focus was primarily to increase learning of the ILOs, particularly knowledge of the relationships between the economy of work and life styles, as well as to internalize values about what type of work might be more satisfying than another. The filmstrip could have also expressed certain points of view not arising from student observations at the worksites. Consequently, this focus made an economical use of time for broadening the discussion and also was a convenient, yet controlled way to increase substantive input after session 1.

Another strategy might have been to send students into the field after session 1 with questions for their colleagues and then have them share the responses in session 2. Such a strategy would put a high priority on student interest, motivation, and responsibility as opposed to teacher control. Such a strategy would also strengthen the continuity between the work experience and the classroom sessions. This continuity between program parts would also introduce a necessary element for assimilating the day-to-day experiences at the work site and for making sense of these experiences. That element is reflection, another mechanism that contributes to interaction between the learner and the activity.

A final programmatic mechanism that facilitated learning by assuring both continuity and interaction for the youth was the work site supervisor. Throughout the field notes for the five sites the importance of this role for learning continued to surface. The supervisor was usually in daily contact with the students and could know if their interests were waning or changing, if they were puzzled or troubled about a particular event, or if their activities at the site needed to be altered or modified to bring about more satisfaction. The supervisor assumed the role of teacher, leading the student through the experiences. Project staff at the project home bases sometimes also served in this capacity in a different way. They were physically removed from daily activities at the worksite and therefore could not be in touch with the youth as they reacted to daily occurrences, but they often served as supports and counselors when opportunities arose.

A Short Aside: Visits to Two Day Care Centers*: One on-site observer recorded these observations during visits made the same day to two day care centers:

> Although an appointment had been made with the director of the day care center she had apprently forgotten about the appointment and indicated that she was pressed for time. Nevertheless, she did "sit quiet" for our interview which, under the circumstances, was certainly not prolonged. While she seemed tense, the project's job developer indicated that this was normal. The program staff have had some problems with the director with respect to obtaining time sheets and reports on students. She apparently does not feel that she has time for such activities. One would gather that secretarial or clerical help is not available in abundance. She did indicate that the school funding had been reduced and that the availability of five students was tremendous help to the school. In fact, she hopes to get other students from the program to work at the school.
>
> In spite of whatever circumstances that seem to trouble her, she had a lot of nice things to say about the students. She felt that they were interested in the school and its work, they did their assignments without fail, and they worked with the school staff without any problems. She indicated that the staff often discussed their work with the students, in staff "meetings" and in informal discussions. While she indicated that the students were almost always on time, the two students who were supposed to be at the school at 2 p.m. had not shown up the the time the OSO (on-site observer) left the school (nearly 2:30). However, she did not seem sure which students or how many were to be at the school at 2 (or thereabouts), she did not know which high schools they came from but she did invite the OSO to wait for the students in a rather uncompromising waiting room. She did indicate that she would be glad to have the OSO return to the school at another time to observe the students and to visit in the classes in which they worked.
>
> (Observent comment: From the director's reactions, one would wonder whether this school represented the best training and learning situation for the students. She spoke of the students in glowing terms and, with a semicolon, indicated that she was so short-handed that almost any kind of assistance was very important.)
>
> The second day care center represented an entirely different picture. Ms. Jones, the director, was delighted to see the OSO, to talk about the children in the school, what the school was doing, how the high school students were making out, etc. She is proud of the school and the purpose it is serving. There

*All persons identified in the protocols have pseudonyms.

are 9 teachers and 4 teacher aides at the school in addition to one "urban aide", the kitchen staff, janitors, a bookkeeper and assistant bookkeeper, etc. She insists that all teachers (regular and assistant) be enrolled in some post-secondary program or some other kind of training-related program.

There are two students assigned to the school, Mark and Andrew, both from the same high school, a vocational high school. In the director's opinion, Mark is "terrific". He loves to work with the children, he learns rapidly and he is interested in learning and in being helpful.

On the other hand, Andrew is primarily interested in work where he can use his hands--like electrical or woodwork. When he first came to the school he seemed depressed and bored (in fact, told the director that he was bored). He had difficulties in becoming involved with the children. While Andrew runs a poor second to Mark, there have been many imporvements. Andrew does participate and he seems more interested in the center's work with children. In spite of his lack of interest, Andrew has been working at the school since November 30. He is usually on time but not on the day the OSO visited. According to the director he does not usually call in when he is going to be absent. She would like to have a student who is more interested in working with children, but on the other hand, she is pleased with the progress that Andrew has made. She feels that more attention should be given to the high school students' interests and aptitudes in their work assignments. Still she takes some pride in the progress that Andrew has made and thinks that this is important in his growth and development.

It develops that some other work sites may be available in the near future that will provide Andrew with the kind of work in which he is interested. An effort will be made to transfer Andrew to the new job site, if he is interested in changing. This new site, a hospital, will have a number of jobs where Andrew could "use his hands" in work more suited to his present interests.

The director feels that both the youth have learned a number of transferrable skills, e.g., how to accept criticism, how to approach teachers, how to work with children and with adults, and how to deal with new and different situations. In addition, she feels that it is helpful for the youths to see how one works with children and assists them in their development.

The director is obviously a good teacher and a good supervisor. While busy, she participated in our interview, even with one or two interruptions, graciously with obvious pleasure.

This observation illustrates that the supervisor's role as teacher is important for the learning of the student. A good teacher has several qualities that can be identified from these field notes.

1. The work site supervisor makes sure that the student is not overwhelmed by the work sites' administrative problems.

2. The work site supervisor provides opportunities for reflection about day-to-day activities at the work site. This takes the form of counseling sessions, informal talks with other staff members, or problem solving opportunities.

3. The work site supervisor provides opportunities for changes in activities and increased responsibility.

4. The work site supervisor facilitates a change in worksite placement if it does not fulfill the needs and interests of the student.

Summary: The principles of continuity and interaction were introduced as a way of assessing the curriculum design contained in the set of learning activities of a work experience program.

Interaction meant that the program related to the educational needs of the learner. Several mechanisms enhanced opportunities for interaction: (1) a careful placement that suited the interests of the learner; (2) opportunities for reflection during the work experience; (3) teacher/counselors and work site supervisors who interact frequently with the student.

Continuity meant that the program paid attention to leading one learning activity to another and integrating the activities into a whole. The job-seeking skills and placement activities naturally led to locating a work placement. The coping skills activity could serve as a rich resource for designing programmatic opportunities for reflection on the work experience.

III. Concepts and Behaviors: Assessing the Content

The concepts and the behaviors that the participants are expected to learn in the five work experience programs examined here have not been clearly and explicitly stated. In order to understand these programs as learning experiences, attention must be given to the concepts and behaviors that learners are expected to develop. A detailed analysis of a teacher's manual developed and used at one site gives a picture of the concepts and behaviors that work experience programs might foster.

Concepts: Table 3 lists concepts inferred from that curriculum guide. Those concepts were not explicitly identified in the curriculum. One set of concepts focused on the economy, including information about banking, earnings, and lifestyles. Self-awareness was another focus area, subsuming the concepts of self-presentation, personal needs, and personal abilities. A third group of concepts was categorized as human relations. This included information about clarifying expectations, communication, and self-assertion. The fourth set of concepts related to the workplace, e.g., information about job clusters, responsibilities, contracts, and the job search.

The concepts are reasonable to teach as context and content for a work experience program. They reoccur within the set of learning activities. This is consistent with the notion of continuity. For example, self-awareness appears in all four stages of the curriculum sequence. The learner first formally encounters the concept in "job-seeking skills" when learning to interview. The learner has an opportunity to apply the concept during actual "job placement" interviews and during the "work experience." Finally, the concept is reintroduced during three "coping skills" sessions.

TABLE 3

CONCEPTS INFERRED FROM A WORK EXPERIENCE CURRICULUM

Economy

1. Banking
   a. Saving
   b. Checking
2. Actual Earnings
   a. Paycheck
   b. Deductions
   c. Time Worked
   d. Expenses
3. Lifestyle
   a. Relationship to Earnings

Self-Awareness

1. Self-Presentation
   a. Image
   b. Appearance
2. Personal Needs
   a. Activity Preferences
   b. Lifestyle
3. Personal Abilities
   a. Competencies
   b. Potential Development

Human Relations

1. Clarifying Expectations
   a. Employer
   b. Colleagues
   c. Supervisor
2. Communication
   a. Reporting, Interviewing
   b. Questions
   c. Negotiation
3. Self-assertion
   a. Confronting Authority
   b. Expressing Needs

Workplace

1. Job Clusters
   a. Range
   b. Differences
2. Responsibilities in Roles
   a. Roles
   b. Responsibilities
   c. Requirements
3. Contracts
   a. Negotiation
   b. Setting Expectations
   c. Completion
4. Job Search
   a. Self-presentation
   b. Personal Information
   c. Employer Expectations

However, all the concepts remain at a fairly elementary level, and the repetition of concepts does not appear to build in an increasingly complex manner. That concepts within the curriculum are not consistently developed and expanded upon sequentially within or between the set of activities indicates that the principle of continuity here received little attention in the curriculum design. One could infer that this indicates an inadequate application of the principle of continuity.

If work experience programs are to extend the domain of education into the workplace, then staff must give active consideration to the concepts to be learned. Attention to the starting point of the students and their interests can enhance interaction between the learner and the concepts to be learned. The principle of continuity would require choices on the part of staff about program design for the particular learning activities, as well as choices about which concepts to be developed or emphasized. It is interesting to note that the concepts identified at this site did not include "initiative," "creativity," "responsibility," "cooperation," or "sharing." Their absence makes it more obvious that concepts are an integral part of the content, even if not explicitly intended.

Further, if work experience programs are to encourage learning, and by extension, equal opportunity for all youth, then efforts need to assure that programs have the potential to promote conceptual growth. Otherwise, the programs become another lower level tracking mechanism teaching rote behaviors at best.

Cognitive and Affective Behaviors: The following analysis of behaviors is also based upon the curriculum manual used at one site.

The Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, which is widely used by curriculum developers, will be used to identify the levels of cognitive and affective behaviors, as inferred to be intended learnings from the work experience curriculum. The levels of cognitive learning identified by Bloom et al. (1956) are, beginning with the lowest level, (1) knowledge, (2) comprehension, (3) application, (4) analysis, (5) synthesis, and (6) evaluation.

The authors order a wide range of learning hierarchically and designate each with numbers along this scale. For example, Bloom defines comprehension as follows:

> That is, when students are confronted with a communication, they are expected to know what is being communicated and to be able to make some use of the material or idea contained in it.

In ascending order within the comprehension category are: 2.1 translation, 2.2 interpretation, and 2.3 extrapolation.

The following analysis of the set of learning activities demonstrates to what extent the development of comprehension behaviors were encouraged. The many job-seeking personnel forms involved (2.1) translation skills, knowing what information goes into which questions, and what certain symbols or categories mean. One coping skills activity emphasized (2.2) interpretation skills, mainly "the ability to interpret various types of social data," recognizing conflict with interactions, and figuring out the meaning of it, granted this is done within the constructs of feelings of self and the other. (2.3) Extrapolation existed as a general but vague goal of several coping skills activities and ultimately of the whole program.

Ultimately, youth may know how to formulate conclusions about the types of work available (2.1), why people work in certain jobs (2.2), and come to some sort of conclusion about themselves and work (2.3). However, these steps from one stage of reasoning to another are very involved and certainly are not developed systematically within each training session. The most striking result of an analysis of intended cognitive learning is the concentration on lower level cognitive skills.

Krathwohl, Bloom, and Masia (1964) have produced a similar taxonomy for the affective domain. These levels are: (1) receiving, (2) responding, (3) valuing, (4) organization, and (5) characterization by a value or value complex. The receiving and responding levels of the affective domain are prominent in the curriculum, or set of learning activities. In particular, the learner develops skills within the lower levels of these two domains.

For example, the job-seeking skills activities emphasized that the "learner be sensitized to the existence of certain phenomena and stimuli", such as (1.1) awareness of feelings of others, and (1.3) controlled or selected attention, such as remembering names. These activities also emphasized (2.0) responding to stimuli, most likely occur in the (2.1) obedience or compliance levels. However, when the students choose a job and go through the actual interview, there is some capacity for a voluntary act, thus putting these actions into the (2.2) willingness to respond level. The (2.3) satisfaction in responses could accompany their behaviors in the program at the sessions and at the apprenticeships.

Ultimately, the program tries to incorporate a realistic sense of the work in the world today, of the value of work, and to integrate it into

the value systems of the youth. The program provides some beginning steps in that direction, but it would be mere speculation to analyze the affective levels achieved in (3) valuing, (4) organization, and (5) characterization by a value.

Summary: Analysis of the curriculum content contained in a package describing the set of learning activities suggests the concepts intended to be learned. These include: (1) economy, (2) self-awareness, (3) human relations, and (4) work place. The concepts remained at a fairly elementary level and were inferred from the curriculum rather than explicitly discussed. That the concepts were not systematically developed throughout to learning activities indicates an inadequate application of the principle of continuity. Likewise, an analysis of cognitive and affective behaviors inferred from the curriculum using the Taxonomy of Educational Objectives revealed an unsystematic treatment of lower level skills. Attention to the principles of continuity and interaction when designing the curricular concepts and behaviors would help staff assure an equal educational opportunity for the students.

IV. Context for Implementation: The Art of the Practical

The context within which the work experience curriculum at five sites occurred clearly affects the implementation. Johnson (1977) categorizes the accommodations necessary to a project's implementation as organizational, temporal, personal, and cultural. Table 4 outlines these accommodations for the curricular context that surfaced from plans, observations, and interviews recorded during implementation at the five sites. The types of accommodations necessary were both explicitly and implicitly stated with the data. For example, one curriculum manual addressed some organizational and temporal accommodations necessary to one project's implementation. The personal and cultural accommodations were deduced from observational and interview data contained in field notes of on-site observers. This included necessary inputs regarding time, staffing, student characteristics, and the cultural values, especially the institutional norms of the school system within which the project operated.

Organizational Arrangements: That a project must adapt to or change an organization for project implementation has often been noted (Gross, Giaquinta, and Bernstein, 1971; Smith and Keith, 1971). The organizational arrangements required for an in-school work experience program involve establishing a work experience team, selecting students, and negotiating a management plan.

The work experience team at site 1 included a work experience specialist and an assistant who worked with a support team of one to three people in each of five high schools. This team took responsibility for

TABLE 4

THE CONTEXT FOR PROGRAM IMPLEMENTATION

I. Arrangements Affecting Feasibility

A. Organizational

1. Work experience team source
2. Student selection process
3. Management plan

B. Temporal

1. Work experience activity
2. Coping skills activity
3. Proposal deadlines
4. Program design

II. Arrangements Affecting Congruence

A. Personal

1. Role models
2. Student selection criteria

B. Cultural

1. Work experience academic credit and pay
2. Acceptance by school personnel

working out the details of the program within each school. This team was composed of "outsiders," i.e., individuals hired by the project funds and not regular classroom teachers. This becomes significant when considering the policy issue of how to change what schools do for the CETA-eligible youth. Another tack might have been to involve regular teachers as part of the support team, thereby increasing the potential for absorption or acceptance of the exemplary project into the regular school curriculum.

In interviews the team expressed that the selection process succeeded better the first year than the second. The number of program dropouts increased during the second year. The team attributed this in part to the decreased amount of control over who entered the program, owing in part to their reduced staff, program and consequent decreased potential for contact with the student population.

Temporal Arrangements: Temporal arrangements necessary for implementing school work-experience programs include time for the work experience activity, the coping skills activity, for proposal writing, and for designing the program. Lundgrun (1972) stresses temporal realities as one of the most important "frame factors" influencing teaching plans in the school. The curriculum plan at one site explicitly stated that students were to be paid for 80 hours of work over a two-month period after school and on the weekends. The "job-seeking skills" and "job placement" activities that preceded the work experience were also after school hours. The "coping skills" sessions were planned to coincide with the two months of the job experience. The plans stated that this time should come during

regular classes on a rotating basis and included a sample school schedule illustrating how student schedules accommodated for the class over the nine week period. This was the only formal project time for possible teaching/learning moments where the students had an opportunity to integrate their work experience in the company of the teacher. All five projects used after-school time for the work experience activity.

The time allowed for writing the proposal, hiring staff, and writing curriculum plans was quite brief. The staff were requested to add the work experience activity to the original proposal. The ability to quickly generate a program design that could be disseminated to career awareness teams in five high schools was possible in part because of the administrative supports of the parent project. Such a management plan might also explain the nuts and bolts appearance of the curriculum manual.

A second site had plans to conduct coping skills activities along with the work experience, but the project had difficulties with implementation. The vagueness of plans and the wish to individualize instruction for each student contributed to staff "burn-out" and turnover.

Personal Arrangements: Attention given to the personal context for a particular curriculum takes into account the importance of characteristics of the teachers and students. One project aimed to expose students to working adults as possible role models. The work-experience team members were long-term school people (ex-teacher, counselors, reading specialists) but not part of the regular high school teaching staff. The federal grant requirements stated that the jobs had to be in the public rather than private sector, thereby limiting exposure to supervisors in the service professions.

The students chosen for the work experience had to be "CETA eligible," meaning that their income must be below the lower standard of living for their geographic region. However, the selection criteria in the manual included student applications, interviews, and attendance record, and recommendations from teachers, counselors, and the school dean. The recommendation form included items to be rated on a scale of 1-5: dependability, promptness, cooperative attitude, self-motivated, well-groomed, neat, student would benefit. These selection criteria more likely helped the project select those poor youth who were likely to succeed with minimal supervision and who were not high risk drop-outs.

Cultural Arrangements: The culture of the schools contains values that influence the institutional arrangements for providing an education to youth. Some of those values (academic credit and pay for work experience, and time cards) were discreetly challenged by one project. Teachers were approached individually about granting academic credit rather than through discussion of the issues and implications in public forums. The project depended upon cooperation from classroom teachers at several points. Indeed these teachers could be seen as the gatekeepers, able to issue academic credit for the work experience according to the contract terms agreed to with the students, and they also could accommodate the students involved in training by making it easy for them to attend a session during their class. Yet the project never secured formal entry into the schools by a vote or by negotiating the terms of entry before approaching individual teachers about academic credit or excused absences. Rather, this potential curriculum change illustrates the slow decision-making process that Kirst and Walker (1971) have described as "disjointed incrementalism."

Practical Implications: Doyle and Ponder (1977) identify three criteria for determining the practicality of curriculum proposals. They are "instrumentality," "congruence," and "cost." Cost is not considered here, though this is an ultimate consideration, as the exemplary projects were funded for between one and two years, in many cases to be continued by school systems or community agencies after that time.

Instrumentality, in effect, explains the ability of a project's proposal to be made feasible by teachers or services deliverers:

> That is, a change proposal must describe an innovation procedure in terms which depict classroom contingencies... communicating the innovation in procedural, ecologically relevant terminology (p. 77).

Site 1 stated the organizational arrangements necessary for implementation in their curriculum manual. Another site was unable to clarify these organizational arrangements because of a vague design, lack of time, and changing personnel. The three remaining sites implemented projects that focused on placements without a curriculum on "coping skills." The organizational arrangements for one, involving three bureaucracies to develop plans as well as methods for cooperation, resulted in delayed implementation. A management plan outlining the decision-making authority and responsibility would have made the proposal more feasible. The other two required less complex organizational arrangements and could be implemented along the statements in the proposal.

Doyle and Ponder's notion of congruence referred to the "'perceived match between the change proposal and prevailing conditions" (p. 78). One site again experienced difficulty in this area partly because the project intended to help a minority group overcome employment problems by teaching work values recognized or perceived as rejected by their culture. This suggests that projects striving to implement programs based on values not congruent with those held by the local community will encounter obstacles along the way.

In conclusion, Doyle and Ponder's comments are applicable to the importance of the context variables highlighted in this section.

> From the standpoint of curriculum effectiveness, policies stressing localization or development and implementation within a specific setting, such as a single school or similar classrooms within a school, would seem to have a greater chance of impacting practice because of the heightened ecological validity resulting from the increased attention to context variables (p. 80).

Summary: This section found that organizational, temporal, personal and cultural arrangements need to be made for successful project implementation of the curriculum design. In particular, the design should be feasible and congruent with the cultural expectations and norms of the local community and school system.

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study addresses two issues behind the creation of viable work experience programs: design and implementation. The purpose of the study is to help those responsible for youth employment programs to identify points in program design and implementation where they can increase the quality of the educational experience that participants will have.

Five work experience programs provided written program materials, observations, and interviews used for case studies in this report. The data was collected for the Youthwork National Policy Study conducted by a research team at Cornell University. The framework to assess the quality of the programs under consideration was developed from curriculum theory and analysis, as its chief concern is the form and content of educational activities. A second concern of program design examined was the influence of the implementation process on curricular decisions.

The study consisted of four parts: I. Curriculum Design: The Set of Learning Activities; II. Curriculum Principles: Assessing the Design; III. Concepts and Behaviors: Assessing the Content; and IV. Context for Implementation: The Art of the Practical.

I. Curriculum Design: The Set of Learning Activities

Students spent time in as many as five different types of program activities. These were: (1) Job-seeking skills; (2) Job placement; (3) Work experience; (4) Coping skills; and (5) Task skills. Three

sites offered job-seeking skills that included development of interviewing skills, writing a resume, and completing job applications.

All sites had job placement and work experience activities as part of their program. The role of the program staff in the job placement activity was described as broker or counselor. The broker matched students in jobs already identified by a job developer, employment computer, or personal contacts. The job counselor spent more time than the broker trying to find placements compatible with the interests of the student and helped with additional matters such as transportation and employer contact.

The work experience activity was defined as what youth did in a job placement. Activities were site dependent rather than program dependent. All work experience took place after school hours.

Two sites offered classroom sessions on coping skills concurrent with the students' time in the work experience. Walther (1976) first identified the term that describes the activities found in these project sessions:

> Coping skills are defined here as those competencies which permit the individual to function within formal or informal social groups. Included are developing and executing plans, working with others, controlling impulses, processing and interpreting information, communication, problem solving, and working within an authority structure (p. 65).

Methods of classroom instruction included filmstrips, discussions, and role playing.

One site emphasized task skills, another category from Walther (1976). This entailed instruction in job-related skills from the work site supervisor.

Recommendations

1. A proposal and project design for work experience programs should differentiate among the types of learning activities to be included.

This will serve to make clear the range of services provided in programs. A recommended set of learning activities for a curriculum design contains: (1) Job-seeking skills; (2) Job placement; (3) Work experience; and (4) Task skills.

2. Project designs should distinguish between the role of broker or job counselor that they anticipate project staff members to play. Job counselors spent more time with youth in the placement process. While this role is more costly to fund, students benefit from the attention given to a careful placement that takes into account their needs and interests. On the other hand, the broker could refer large numbers of students to jobs already identified.

II. Curriculum Principles: Assessing the Design

Dewey's (1938) principles of continuity and interaction introduced a way of assessing the educational value and structure of the set of learning activities in work experience programs.

Interaction meant that the program adapted to the "needs and capabilities" of the learners. Several mechanisms enhanced opportunities for interaction to take place: (1) a careful job placement that suited the interests of the learner; (2) opportunities for reflection on the actual work experience, particularly through activities such as coping skills; and (3) teacher/counselors and work site supervisors who interact frequently with the student.

The role of staff as job counselors allowed greater attention to the matching of student and job placement. The role that staff played as broker at one project enabled them to channel several hundred students to private sector openings.

Opportunities for reflection on what was learned through the work experience were not abundantly apparent at the five programs. An obvious programmatic mechanism that could be used for critical reflection would be the coping skills activities. Such activities could use the actual experiences of youth in the workplace as a frame of reference for role playing, discussions and introduction of new concepts, attitudes and skills. This would promote a deeper understanding of their daily experiences.

Teacher/counselors and work site supervisors who interacted frequently with students were in a better position to assess the response of the student to the job placement, and consequently, to restructure the job responsibilities, to counsel and advise, or to change the placement.

The principle of continuity at work in the program design meant that the program paid attention to leading one learning activity to another and integrating the activities into a whole. The sequencing of the set of learning activities served as one mechanism to implement the principle of continuity. The job-seeking skills and placement activities naturally led to locating a work experience. The coping skills activity could serve as a rich and logical resource for designing programmatic opportunities for reflection that link the work experience to these classroom sessions.

As with the principle of interaction, the role of the teacher/counselor and work site supervisor emerged as key to programmatic decisions that enhance the principle of continuity, such as changes in activities, increasing responsibility, counseling, or changing the worksite.

Recommendations

1. Program staff and proposal authors should use the principles of continuity and interaction as suggested by Dewey (1938) to guide the design of their work experience programs.
2. Interaction means that the program design is adapted to the "needs and capabilities" of the learners. Programmatic mechanisms that will enhance opportunities for interaction to take place are a careful job placement process, opportunities for reflection on the actual work experience, and frequent adult interaction with the students.
3. The coping skills activities would be an obvious opportunity for critical reflection on the work experience.
4. Teacher/counselors and work experience supervisors should be in frequent contact with students during the work experience so as to counsel and advise, to restructure the job responsibilities, and to change the placement if necessary.
5. The principle of continuity means that learning activities build upon each other. Programmatic mechanisms to enhance continuity include sequencing of the set of learning activities so that what is learned or experienced in one activity is reused in another.
6. Proposal reviewers should make judgments about the educational value of work experience programs by using the principles of continuity and interaction.

III. Concepts and Behaviors: Assessing the Content

The concepts and behaviors to be learned at the five work experience programs were not clearly and systematically included in the program design. A detailed analysis of the curriculum guide used at one site

allowed a listing of concepts and behaviors from which a critique could be made.

Four sets of concepts were inferred from the curriculum guide: economy, self-awareness, human relations, and the workplace. They appeared reasonable to be included in a work experience curriculum. Some reoccurred in several learning activities, utilizing the principle of continuity in program design. However, all concepts remained at a fairly elementary level and were not developed systematically.

It is interesting to note the absence of some potentially valuable concepts, such as initiative, creativity, responsibility, and cooperation. Their absence emphasizes the importance of having program staff consciously decide upon a set of concepts to teach through a work experience program.

An analysis of cognitive and affective behaviors inferred from the curriculum using the Taxonomy of Educational Objectives revealed an unsystematic treatment of lower level skills.

In conclusion, attention to the principles of continuity and interaction when designing the curricular concepts and behaviors intended to be learned would help program staff assure that the work experience program provides an equal educational opportunity for students, rather than a lower level, lower expectations tracking program for potential drop-outs.

Recommendations

1. In order to understand work experience programs as learning experiences, attention must be explicitly given in the program design to the concepts and behaviors that learners are expected to develop.

2. Reasonable concepts to be developed in a program design include economy, self-awareness, human relations and the workplace. Additional concepts might be initiative, creativity, responsibility, and cooperation.
3. Program planners should provide for a systematic development of concepts and behaviors, rather than restricting such development to lower levels.

IV. Context for Implementation: The Art of the Practical

This section outlined organizational, temporal, personal, and cultural arrangements in the project's context that enhance project implementation. Such arrangements needed to be negotiated with the related institutions or bureaucracies, such as school systems, CETA, and the worksites.

The organizational arrangements included the choice of a work experience team. The decision to hire school personnel or "outsiders" seems to lessen the ability of the project to change what schools do for CETA-eligible youth in the long run.

The necessity of a clear, mutually satisfactory management plan also surfaced. One project that depended upon the cooperation of three bureaucracies experienced a delayed implementation because of lengthy negotiations about project plans. A management plan would enhance the project's feasibility.

A third important organizational arrangement is the process of student selection for the projects. One site found that increased contact with the student body lessened the drop-out rate of students who joined the work experience project.

Temporal arrangements that need to be made are a feasible time frame for responding to a request for a proposal; time for staff to develop a program design in the event that one is lacking; and clearances with school personnel about schedules for the classroom sessions of learning activities and the actual work experience.

Personal arrangements that need to be met include considerations of teachers and work site supervisors as role models. Limiting these models to the service professions of the public sector means that exposure to the world of work is likewise limited.

Criteria for selecting the CETA eligible should also assure that the project not exclude students who would need supervision and be high-risk drop-outs.

Cultural arrangements for project implementation revealed that the projects needed clearance from the schools for the particular institutional arrangements such as academic credit and pay for work experience, as well as acceptance of the project idea by school personnel. In addition, project aspirations and values not congruent with those of the local community may result in delayed or difficult implementation.

Recommendations

1. Project operators need to make organizational, temporal, personal and cultural arrangements with the related institutions to enhance project implementation.
2. Organizational arrangements include the staffing of a work experience team with school personnel or non-school personnel. Such a choice has implications for impacting upon the long-term service delivery of school personnel.

3. A management plan would enhance the project's feasibility by making institutional interrelationships and authority clear at the outset.
4. Methods for student selection need to be outlined, as staff need to weigh the time they have for each of the alternatives.
5. Temporal arrangements include time for proposal writing and for completing a viable program design. Staff must also make clearances with school personnel about the use of project time during school time.
6. Personal arrangements involve decisions about role models for youth, that is, the characteristics of teachers and work site supervisors. Also, criteria for student selection should not exclude the potential drop-out, high-risk student.
7. Project staff need to examine the cultural norms and assumptions of the project for possible conflict with those of the school or local community. Such conflict would impede or delay implementation.

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